Home-to-Work Spillover Revisited: A Study of Full-Time Employed Women in Dual-Earner Couples

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Abstract

In this analysis, I estimated separately the moderating effect of marital- and parent-role quality on the relationship between job-role quality and psychological distress in a random sample of 300 full-time employed women in dual-earner couples. The hypothesized relationships were confirmed: the quality of women's marital and parental roles each buffered women from the negative mental-health effects associated with a poor experience on the job. Comparison of these data with those previously reported from the husbands of these women indicated that these interaction effects did not depend on gender. For full-time employed men and women in dual-earner couples, positive experiences in the role of partner or parent buffered the effects of job experiences on psychological distress.

KEY WORDS

Spillover
Dual-Earner Couples
Gender Differences
Psychological Distress
Maternal Employment
Multiple Roles
Several studies challenge the conventional wisdom that the boundary between home and work is more permeable for women than for men (Crouter, 1984; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). More specifically, contagion or spillover from home to work was believed to be a greater problem for employed men than for employed women (Barnett & Marshall, 1992a, 1992b; Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Wethington, 1989a, 1989b; Kirchmeyer, 1992). Stressors at home affected reports of stress at work (contagion) or compounded the relationship between job stressors and psychological distress (spillover) more for men than for women. These findings have been interpreted largely in terms of a gender difference in coping with multiple roles. It has been suggested, for example, that employed men are less experienced at handling family stressors than are employed women (Bolger et al, 1989b; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Voyandodff, 1988). However, it is also possible that differences other than gender might account for these unexpected findings. Importantly, the men in these studies were all employed full-time, but the women were not.

Perhaps home-to-work spillover is less prevalent when one is employed less than full-time and can, therefore, adjust her/his work schedule to accommodate family problems. When one is employed full-time, work-schedule rigidity may preclude such accommodation, resulting in negative spillover for women as well as men. In this analysis, I estimated home-to-work spillover effects in a random sample of 300 full-time employed women in dual-earner couples and compared the findings to previously reported findings from analyses of data from their full-time employed husbands (Barnett, Marshall, & Pleck, 1992).

**Literature Review**

One corollary of the assumed greater impact of home events on women than on men is that the boundary between home and work is more permeable for women than men (Pleck, 1985). When Bolger and his colleagues tested this assumption in a dual-earner sample (1989b), they found, to their surprise, that their findings did not confirm their hypotheses. In their words, the data "show exactly the opposite to be the case" (p. 179). More specifically, overload at home, arguments with spouse, and arguments with children on one day had significant effects on work stress the next day. However, these relationships were true for the men only. Bolger and his colleagues
concluded that, "Women are able to avoid the contagion of home stress into the workplace in all the subsamples we considered, whereas the inability of men to prevent this kind of contagion is pervasive" (1989b, p. 179).

Consistent results, using different methodologies, were reported in two within-sex analyses. First, among employed women health-care workers, there was no evidence of negative home-to-work spillover. Problems at home, with a partner or with children, did not compound the relationship between job-role quality and psychological distress (Barnett & Marshall, 1992a). The women in this sample were employed at least half-time. Speculatively, women who were experiencing problems with their children or husbands could respond to those problems by adjusting their work schedules. Work-schedule flexibility might then serve as a coping strategy mitigating the mental distress women would have otherwise experienced.

Second, in an analysis of data from the husbands of the women in the present analysis, all of whom were employed full-time and married to women who were also employed full-time, poor marital-role or parental-role quality exacerbated the relationship between job experiences and psychological distress (i.e., negative home-to-work spillover) (Barnett, Marshall, & Pleck, 1992). More specifically, when marital experiences were positive, there was no significant relationship between job experiences and psychological distress. However, when marital experiences were negative, there was a significant relationship between job experiences and distress. Interestingly, these relationships did not depend on parental status. For employed married men, regardless of their parental status, marital difficulties exacerbated the relationship between job experiences and psychological distress.

The findings concerning parent-role quality were parallel. Among employed married fathers, negative experiences in their relationships with their children exacerbated the association between job experiences and distress. In contrast, when experiences in the parent-child relationship were positive, there was no significant association between job-role quality and distress. Thus, among full-time employed men, whose wives were also employed full-time, lack of work-schedule flexibility may have impeded their ability to attend to troubled family relationships resulting in a
heightened association between troubled job experiences and distress.

Estimating the same regression models with the data from the women in these dual-earner couples will shed light on whether the previously reported findings concerning home-to-work spillover effects were due to gender or to full-time employment, regardless of gender. Evidence of home-to-work spillover in this sample of full-time employed women would support the hypothesis that in full-time employed dual-earner couples, full-time employment, not gender, is associated with negative spillover. Failure to find evidence of negative home-to-work spillover would support the hypothesis of a gender difference in the ability to cope with multiple roles among full-time employed men and women in dual-earner couples.

There is a growing consensus that the effects of gender on a host of behavioral variables "are less pervasive than many thought" and that situational variables are critical in eliciting or suppressing differences (Deaux, 1984, p. 108; Thoits, 1992). Previous research with this sample of dual-earner couples strongly supports this consensus. After controlling for appropriate co-variates, gender did not affect the magnitude of the relationship between either job-role or family-role quality (i.e., marital-role and parent-role quality) and psychological distress (Barnett, Brennan, & Marshall, in press a, in press b). Based on these studies, and the finding of home-to-work spillover among their husbands, I expect to find home-to-work spillover in this sample of full-time employed women in dual-earner couples.

In sum, in this random sample of 300 full-time employed women in dual-earner couples, I estimated the moderating effects of marital-and parent-role quality on the relationship between job-role quality and distress and I compared these results with previously reported results from their husbands.

The three specific hypotheses are as follows:

1. Marital-role quality moderates the relationship between job-role quality and psychological distress. This hypothesis will be tested in the whole sample, controlling for parental status.

2. Parental-role quality moderates the relationship between job-role quality and distress.
This hypothesis will be tested among the subsample of women who are mothers, controlling for the ages of the children.

3. Gender does not moderate these interaction effects. This hypothesis will be tested in two ways: by graphing the interaction effects for the sample of women and comparing the graphs with those generated from the male data; and by conducting explicit tests of the gender effect.

Method

Sample

The data for these analyses come from the first wave of a three-wave data collection (over two years) of a random sample of 300 dual-earner couples residing in eastern Massachusetts, in which both spouses are employed full-time and the men are between the ages of 25-40. The sample was stratified on parental status; at the first wave, 60% of the sample were parents, 40% were not. The sample was drawn from the town lists of all residents of two Boston-area towns. These towns were selected because they were socioeconomically diverse and included a large proportion of working women. (In one town, 70.1% of women aged 20-54 were employed in 1980, according to the 1980 U.S. Census. In the other, 75.2% of women ages 20-40 were employed in 1980, according to the 1980 U.S. Census.) The participation rate among the eligible couples whom we were able to contact was 68%. (See Barnett, Marshall, & Pleck, 1992 for a complete description of the sampling procedures.)

The population of these towns is overwhelmingly white, as is the sample we obtained. Thus, we are unable to examine race differences. The actual racial composition of the sample was: 97% Caucasian, 1% Hispanic, 1% Black, and 1% Native American and Other. To have obtained an analyzable sample of Black or Hispanic couples would have required a sampling design beyond the scope of the project.

On average the men in the sample were 34.99 years (SD = 4.29), whereas the women were 34.21 (SD = 4.83). The men and women, on average, had completed 16 years of schooling, that is, they completed a college degree (Mean = 16.40, SD = 2.34 and Mean = 16.20, SD = 2.09, for men and women, respectively). However, there was a wide range of educational attainment:
among the men, 27% had not completed 4 years of college, whereas 40% had some graduate education; among the women, 26% had not completed 4 years of college compared to 36% who had some post-college education. More than 90% of the sample were in first marriages; 9.3% of the women and 7.2% of the men had been married previously. Among the couples who had children, the average family size was 1.76 children ($SD = 1.04$).

The majority of both men and women were employed in managerial/professional occupations (67.7% of the men and 71.1% of the women). Approximately one-quarter of the women (24.9%) compared to less than twenty percent of the men (17.7%) were employed in technical/sales/administrative occupations. Finally, more men than women (14.6% compared to 4.0%) were employed in either service/precision production/crafts/repair occupations or as operators or laborers.

**Procedures**

Subjects were interviewed separately in their homes or offices by trained female interviewers. The interviews were conducted between the fall of 1989 and the spring of 1990. They took about 1 1/2 hours and covered many aspects of the women's lives, including the rewards and concerns in each of their social roles, as well as measures of psychological distress (described below). Prior to the interview, they received a packet of forms to be filled out and returned to the interviewer. Each couple received $25 for participating.

**Measures**

**Psychological distress.** Psychological distress was assessed by the anxiety and depression subscales of the SCL-90-R, a frequency of symptoms measure (Derogatis, 1975). Subjects indicated, on a 5-point scale (from 0 = not at all, to 4 = extremely), how often in the past week they were bothered by each of 14 symptoms of anxiety and 10 symptoms of depression. The SCL-90-R has high levels of both internal consistency and test-retest reliability. In this sample, coefficient alpha was .80 for the anxiety scale, .85 for the depression scale, and .90 for the combined scale, indicating that the items measure a common underlying construct. These figures are similar to those reported by Derogatis (1983). The decision to combine the scales into a
psychological distress score was based on the high alpha for the combined scale, the high
correlation \( r = .72 \) between the scales, and the similarity in the pattern of correlations between
the anxiety and depression scales and the other variables of interest in the study. Satisfactory
test-retest correlations (.82 for depression and .80 for anxiety) have also been reported (Derogatis,
1983). The scores were reversed so that high scores reflect low levels of symptoms. The mean for
the reversed scale was 49.6 (sd = 10.22); the range was 0-53.

Role quality. Based on previous research (Baruch & Barnett, 1986; Barnett, Kibria, Baruch, &
Pleck, 1991) and pilot studies, the rewarding and distressing aspects of women's roles as worker,
spouse, and parent were identified. The number of reward and concern items varies across the
three roles: there are 33 job-reward items, 28 job-concern items; 26 marital-reward items; 26
marital-concern items; 21 parent-reward items and 23 parent-concern items. (The scales are
available from the author upon request.)

Subjects used a 4-point scale (from 1=not at all, to 4=extremely) to indicate to what extent, if at
all, each of the items was currently rewarding or distressing. For example, with respect to the job
role, subjects were asked how rewarding was "Having a variety of tasks," and how much of a
concern was "Lack of job security." For the marital role, subjects were asked, how rewarding was
"Enjoying the same activities" and how much of a concern, was "Your partner being critical of
you." For the parent role, subjects were asked, how rewarding is "Seeing your children mature
and change" and how much of a concern was "Your having too many arguments and conflicts with
them." Each subject received three scores for each social role: a reward score (her mean response
to the reward items), a concern score, and a role-quality score (i.e., the reward score plus the
inverse of the concern score). For each role, the role-quality score constitutes our overall index of
the quality of experience in that role.

To establish the reliabilities of these three scores, test-retest reliability coefficients and Cronbach
alphas were computed. Test-retest reliability coefficients were calculated for approximately 10% of
the sample \( n = 64 \) who were reinterviewed within three months of their initial interview.
Test-retest reliability coefficients ranged between .91 and .95 for the marital scales; between .81
and .82 for the parent scales, and .67 and .68 for the job scales. A possible explanation for the relatively low test-retest reliability coefficients for the job scores is that the reinterviews took place in the midst of general concern about the Massachusetts' economy and massive layoffs in companies and industries in which many of the subjects, their spouses, or their friends were employed. Cronbach alphas were all highly acceptable: .93 and .89 for the marital-reward and marital-concern scales; .92 and .86 for the parent-reward and parent-concern scales; and .89 and .87 for the job-reward and job-concern scales.

The overall role quality score was selected for analyses rather than the rewards and concerns scores because it captures an important aspect of subjective role quality (Bradburn, 1969; Lowenthal & Chiriboga, 1973). Moreover, in previous research, this score was used as a measure of role quality and had significant associations with both subjective well being and psychological-distress indicators (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Barnett et al, 1991).

**Parental status.** A dummy variable was created for parental status (0 = no children living at home, 1 = children living at home).

**Age of child(ren).** Two dummy variables were created: one to reflect the presence or absence of a preschool child in the home (0 = no preschool children, 1 = at least one preschooler), the other to reflect the presence or absence of a child aged 6 to 18 in the home (0 = no child 6-18 in the home, 1 = at least one child 6-18 in the home).

**Results**

**Role Quality**

**Job-role quality.** On average, women reported their jobs to be more rewarding than problematic, hence, their overall role-quality scores were positive (Mean = 1.32, sd = .63). More specifically, the mean job-reward score was between considerably and extremely rewarding (Mean = 3.01, sd = .42); the mean job-concern score was between not at all and somewhat concerned, (Mean = 1.69, sd = .37).

**Marital-role quality.** Women, in general, were more rewarded than concerned about their marital relationships, yielding a positive mean overall role-quality score (Mean = 1.69, sd = .78). The
average marital-reward score was between considerably and extremely rewarding (Mean = 3.25, sd = .47); the average marital-concern score was between not at all and somewhat concerned (Mean = 1.55, sd = .38).

**Parent-role quality.** On the whole, women reported more rewards than concerns in their relationships with their children, hence, their overall role-quality scores are positive (Mean = 1.59, sd = .69). In particular, the average parent-reward score was between considerably and extremely rewarding (Mean = 3.31, sd = .48); the average parent-concern score was between not at all and somewhat concerned (Mean = 1.72, sd = .39).

**Psychological Distress**

Among the women in the sample, the average per-item score for the anxiety scale was .43; the average per-item score for the depression scale, was .57. Both scores are within .5 standard deviation of the scores for the non-patient normative population (Derogatis, 1975). The mean distress level of women who were mothers was different from that of women who were not mothers (t (119, 179) = -2.08, p < .05). Employed women with children reported lower psychological distress than their counterparts without children.

As expected, the three role-quality scores were significantly correlated with psychological distress (r = .34, .41, and .31, p < .001, for job-role quality, marital-role quality, and parent-role quality, respectively).

**H1: Marital-Role Quality Moderates the Relationship Between Job-Role Quality and Psychological Distress.**

To examine this hypotheses, I had to demonstrate that the inclusion of the interaction term, marital-role quality X job-role quality was significant and accounted for a significant increment to \( R^2 \) above that accounted for in a main-effects only regression model. Thus, I first estimated a main-effects model with the following five demographic control variables: age, occupational prestige, household income, education, and parental status. Occupational prestige was coded using the Bose Index (1985), which utilizes the 1980 Census Three-Digit Occupation Code and assigns prestige values separately for each gender. On the basis of tolerance statistics computed for each
model, I determined that multi-collinearity problems were a minimal risk. And, none of the demographic control variables was significantly correlated with psychological distress.

The main-effects model was significant \[F (7, 289) = 14.323, \ p < .001, \ R^2 = .26\] (see Table 1). After controlling for age, occupational prestige, household income, education, and parental status, the quality of both women’s work and marital roles was significantly related to psychological distress. I then re-estimated the model adding to the predictors the interaction term, marital-role quality x job-role quality. If inclusion of the interaction term yielded a significant increment to \(R^2\) above that associated with the main-effects model, then hypothesis one would be confirmed: the relationship between job-role quality and distress would vary depending on the quality of women’s relationships with their partners.

The interaction-effects model was significant: marital-role quality moderated the relationship between job-role quality and distress (Table One), \[F (7, 285) = 13.378, \ p < .001, \ R^2 = .27\]. Inclusion of the interaction term, marital-role quality x job-role quality, resulted in an increment to \(R^2\) that was significant at \(p < .05\). This finding supports Hypothesis One.

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Insert Table One about here

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When marital-role quality is high, women’s distress is not as greatly affected by the quality of their jobs as it is when marital-role quality is low; when marital-role quality is low, women’s distress is more dependent on the quality of the job role (Figure One). It is, of course, also possible to interpret the interaction to mean that job-role quality moderates the relationship between marital-role quality and psychological distress, i.e., when job-role quality is good, marital role quality has little effect on distress; when job-role quality is poor, marital role quality has a direct effect on distress.

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Insert Figure One about here

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Although the primary focus in this analysis is on the interaction effects, the main effects are also of some interest. Among these full-time employed women in dual-earner couples, job-role and marital-role quality were each related in the expected direction to distress. In addition, women with children reported less distress than women without children.

H2: Parental-Role Quality Moderates the Relationship Between Job-Role Quality and Distress.

To investigate this hypothesis, I first estimated a main-effects regression model with six control variables: age, occupational prestige, education, income, and two dummy variables reflecting age of children (preschool and school-age children). For this analysis, I used the subsample of full-time employed women who had children (n = 180). The model was significant [F (9, 169) = 5.812, p < .001, R² = .24]. Thus, job-role and parent-role quality were significantly associated with distress, regardless of whether the women have preschool children or children aged 6 to 18 at home.

I then re-estimated the model, adding to the predictors the interaction term, parent-role quality X job-role quality. The interaction-effects model was significant [F (10, 168) = 5.758, p <.001, R² = .26] (Table 2), thereby supporting Hypothesis Two. Inclusion of the interaction term, parent-role quality X job-role quality, resulted in a significant increment to R² (p <.05).

As can be seen in Figure 2, when women's relationships with their children are positive, job-role quality has little association to psychological distress. However, when women's relationships with their children are troubled, job-role quality is more strongly associated with psychological distress: as job-role quality decreases, psychological distress increases. These findings parallel those for marital-role quality.
The main effects are also noteworthy. Marital- and job-role quality were each related to psychological distress in the expected direction, however, the presence of children, either preschool or school age in the home was not.

**H3: Gender Does Not Moderate These Interaction Effects**

Comparison of the interaction effects in these analyses (i.e., Figures One and Two) and those in the previous analyses of the male sample (i.e., Figures One and Two in Barnett, Marshall, & Pleck, 1992) shows them to be essentially identical. This similarity supports Hypothesis 3. In addition, I was able to conduct explicit tests of the significance of the gender effect in each of these two interaction terms. (See Barnett, Marshall, Raudenbush, & Brennan (1993) for a thorough discussion of this technique.) To that end, the data for the men and women were combined and re-analyzed using a two-level hierarchical linear model (Barnett, Marshall, Raudenbush, & Brennan, 1993; Raudenbush & Bryk, 1986). These analyses (data not shown), capitalize on the matched-pairs design of the sample by retaining the couple membership of each subject and controlling for such individual-level predictors as age, occupational prestige, job-role quality, and marital-role quality, and for such couple-level predictors as household income, parental status, number of children.

More specifically, I first specified a model in which each predictor was allowed to have a different effect for females and males. I then tested the difference between female and male regression coefficients for each predictor. If no gender difference in a pair of regression coefficients was found, that coefficient was constrained to be equal in the next analysis. In this context, I distinguished between two types of "control" variables; the first are variables that have a single value for each couple (household income, number of years together, and parental status), and the second are variables for which each member of the couple has a unique value (occupational prestige, education level, age and marital-role quality). To minimize the chance of Type I error attendant on undertaking separate tests for significant differences in each of the pairs of predictors,
I conducted two omnibus tests of the hypothesis that for each group of control variables there was no difference in the magnitude of the regression coefficients for males and females. Given the retention of each of these omnibus hypotheses, I re-estimated the model with the coefficients for the control variables constrained to be equal for males and females. The test for gender differences in the interaction between marital-role (or parental-role) quality and job-role quality was undertaken individually after all other slopes had been constrained to be the same. This approach maximized the power in testing for gender differences in the interaction effect because the standard error of that test is minimized when the other covariates are constrained to have the same effect for females and males. Hence, the two-stage hypothesis-testing strategy maximizes the opportunity to find a gender difference in the relation between the interaction effect of marital-role (or parental-role) quality X job-role quality and distress if such a gender difference exists.

In neither case was the effect of gender significant. Thus, the interaction effect of marital quality on the relationship between job quality and distress did not depend on gender. Similarly, the interaction effect of parent quality on the relationship between job quality and distress did not depend on gender. For full-time employed women and men in dual-earner couples, the magnitude of the spillover effect between the quality of their home and work lives is the same. Thus, gender has little or no impact on the magnitude of these interaction effects. These findings provide strong support for Hypothesis 3.

Discussion and Conclusions

The main finding of this study of 300 white, primarily middle class, full-time employed women in dual-earner couples is that family-role quality moderates the relationship between job-role quality and psychological distress. When marital or parental experiences are positive, there is little relationship between job experiences and distress. When marital or parental experiences are negative, there is a stronger relationship between job experiences and distress. In addition, these interaction effects are not affected by gender. Among full-time employed women and men in dual-earner couples, gender does not affect the magnitude of the spillover effects.

Moreover, among full-time employed women in dual-earner couples, the effect of job-role
quality on distress depends on the quality of the marital relationship, after controlling for parental status. And, among full-time employed women with children, the effect of job-role quality on distress depends on parent-role quality.

These findings contrast with those reported from samples of women employed less than full-time. Studies of women employed less than full-time failed to report spillover or contagion (Barnett & Marshall, 1992a; Bolger et al., 1989b). It may be that among part-time employed women, the possibility of reducing their work schedules to cope with family stressors appears to reduce the contagion or spillover that might otherwise occur. No such reduction is possible among full-time employed. It appears that the rigidity of the work schedules of full-time employed women precludes their responding to family needs by adjusting their work commitments. In the absence of this coping strategy, full-time employed women are more vulnerable to spillover effects than their less than full-time employed counterparts and as vulnerable to spillover as their full-time employed husbands. When full-time employment is controlled, spillover effects are prevalent equally for women and men. Thus, work schedule rigidity not gender may account for the presence or absence of negative spillover effects from home to work.

Alternatively, part-time employed women may be less committed to their jobs than full-time employed women. When job commitment is low, concentration may also be less intense and therefore less affected by family-role quality. Thus, commitment rather than work schedule rigidity might account for the different pattern of findings for part-time and full-time employed women.

Interestingly, having a spouse who is employed less than full-time does not appear to reduce one's risk of home-to-work contagion or spillover, at least among full-time employed men (Bolger et al., 1989b). Thus, among full-time employed men and women, home-to-work contagion or spillover is more an effect of their own work commitment than of combined work commitments of the couple.

The similarity in the findings for the women and men underscores the reality that, at least among full-time employed dual-earner couples, there is little separation between home and work. What happens in one arena affects what happens in the other. These findings also support the
growing consensus that gender accounts for very little variance in distress after controlling for situational variables (Deaux, 1984).

Support for the theoretical importance of flexibility in determining the effect of work and family stressors on mental-health outcomes comes from findings from two longitudinal studies. In one, using the present sample of full-time employed married women, change over time in job experiences was related to change over time in distress (Barnett et al, 1993). In the other, with a sample of women who were employed at least half time and who varied in marital and parental status, change over time in job experiences was associated with change over time in distress (Barnett, Marshall, & Singer, 1992). The effect, however, was limited to women with no family roles. Among women who were wives or mothers or both, change in job experiences was unrelated to change in distress over time. The lack of flexibility of work commitments among the full-time employed married women in the first analysis, may have accounted for the vulnerability of their mental health to change in the quality of their job experiences over time. In contrast, the women with family roles in the second study were arguably less likely to be employed full-time than their counterparts without family roles. Thus, relative flexibility of the work commitment among the women with family roles may have accounted for their relative invulnerability to the vicissitudes of their job experiences.

Finally, future research is needed to determine whether these findings are generalizable to a more diverse sample of dual-earner couples.

NOTE

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Table 1
Main- and Interaction-Effects Models of The Relationship Between Marital-Role Quality, Job-Role Quality and Women’s Psychological Distress

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
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<td>$\beta^a$</td>
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| Age                              | -.06         | .12      | -.03     | -.05                | .12      | -.02
| Occupational Prestige            | -.02         | .04      | -.03     | -.02                | .04      | -.03
| Education                        | .08          | .32      | .02      | -.03                | .32      | -.01
| Household Income                 | -.01         | .01      | -.05     | -.01                | .01      | -.05
| Parental Status                  | 3.57**       | 1.20     | .17      | 3.57**              | 1.19     | .17
| Job-Role Quality                 | 3.84***      | .90      | .23      | 3.53***             | .90      | .21
| Marital-Role Quality             | 5.06***      | .73      | .37      | 5.60***             | .76      | .41
| Job-Role x Marital-Role Quality  | -2.38*       | 1.04     | -.12     |                     |          |

$R^2=.257^{***}$ \hspace{1cm} $R^2=.271^{***}$

Note: $n=296$

a Unstandardized regression coefficient
b Standard error
c Standardized regression coefficient
d Increment to $R^2$ compared to main effects, $p<.05$

$**p<.01 \hspace{1cm} ***p<.001$
Table 2
Main- and Interaction-Effects Models of the Relationship Between Parent-Role Quality, Job-Role Quality, and Women’s Psychological Distress

<table>
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<th>Predictor</th>
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<td></td>
<td>$\beta^a$</td>
<td>SE$^b$  $\beta^c$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>.20    -.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Prestige</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.05    -.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.39    -.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household Income</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.01    -.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preschool Children</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>1.93   -.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children 6-18</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.81   .06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job-Role Quality</td>
<td>2.75*</td>
<td>1.16   .18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital-Role Quality</td>
<td>3.33***</td>
<td>.87    .28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-Role Quality</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>1.14   .14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job-Role x Parent-Role Quality</td>
<td>-2.92*</td>
<td>1.41   -.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: n=178

a Unstandardized regression coefficient
b Standard error
c Standardized regression coefficient
d Increment to R$^2$ compared to main effects, $p<.05$

*p$<.05    **$p$<.01    ***$p$<.001

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Figure Captions

1. Interaction Effect of Marital-Role Quality on the Relationship Between Job-Role Quality and Psychological Distress for Women.

2. Interaction Effect of Parent-Role Quality on the Relationship Between Job-Role Quality and Psychological Distress for Women with Children.
Figure 1

Psychological Distress

Legend
- High Marital-Role Quality
- Low Marital-Role Quality

Less Distress

More Distress

Job-Role Quality

Low

High

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Figure 2

Psychological Distress

Legend
- High Parent-Role Quality
- Low Parent-Role Quality

Job-Role Quality

More Distress

Less Distress

68
64
60
56
52
48
44
40
36
32